

Grassed Swales

Postconstruction Storm Water Management in New Development and Redevelopment

Description

The term swale (a.k.a. grassed channel, dry swale, wet swale, biofilter) refers to a series of vegetated, open channel management practices designed specifically to treat and attenuate storm water runoff for a specified water quality volume. As storm water runoff flows through these channels, it is treated through filtering by the vegetation in the channel, filtering through a subsoil matrix, and/or infiltration into the underlying soils. Variations of the grassed swale include the grassed channel, dry swale, and wet swale. The specific design features and methods of treatment differ in each of these designs, but all are improvements on the traditional drainage ditch. These designs incorporate modified geometry and other features for use of the swale as a treatment and conveyance practice.



Applicability

Grassed swales can be applied in most situations with some restrictions. Swales are very well suited for treating highway or residential road runoff because they are linear practices.

Regional Applicability

Grassed swales can be applied in most regions of the country. In arid and semi-arid climates, however, the value of these practices needs to be weighed against the water needed to irrigate them.

Ultra-Urban Areas

Ultra-urban areas are densely developed urban areas in which little pervious surface exists. Grassed swales are generally not well suited to ultra-urban areas because they require a relatively large area of pervious surfaces.

Storm Water Hot Spots

Storm water hot spots are areas where land use or activities generate highly contaminated runoff, with concentrations of pollutants in excess of those typically found in storm water. A typical example is a gas station or convenience store. With the exception of the dry swale design (see Design Variations), hot spot runoff should not be directed toward grassed channels. These

practices either infiltrate storm water or intersect the ground water, making use of the practices for hot spot runoff a threat to ground water quality.

Storm Water Retrofit

A storm water retrofit is a storm water management practice (usually structural) put into place after development has occurred, to improve water quality, protect downstream channels, reduce flooding, or meet other specific objectives. One retrofit opportunity using grassed swales modifies existing drainage ditches. Ditches have traditionally been designed only to convey storm water away from roads. In some cases, it may be possible to incorporate features to enhance pollutant removal or infiltration such as check dams (i.e., small dams along the ditch that trap sediment, slow runoff, and reduce the longitudinal slope). Since grassed swales cannot treat a large area, using this practice to retrofit an entire watershed would be expensive because of the number of practices needed to manage runoff from a significant amount of the watershed's land area.

Cold Water (Trout) Streams

Grassed channels are a good treatment option within watersheds that drain to cold water streams. These practices do not pond water for a long period of time and often induce infiltration. As a result, standing water will not typically be subjected to warming by the sun in these practices.

Siting and Design Considerations

In addition to the broad applicability concerns described above, designers need to consider conditions at the site level. In addition, they need to incorporate design features to improve the longevity and performance of the practice, while minimizing the maintenance burden.

Siting Considerations

In addition to considering the restrictions and adaptations of grassed swales to different regions and land uses, designers need to ensure that this management practice is feasible at the site in question because some site conditions (i.e., steep slopes, highly impermeable soils) might restrict the effectiveness of grassed channels.

Drainage Area

Grassed swales should generally treat small drainage areas of less than 5 acres. If the practices are used to treat larger areas, the flows and volumes through the swale become too large to design the practice to treat storm water runoff through infiltration and filtering.

Slope

Grassed swales should be used on sites with relatively flat slopes of less than 4 percent slope; 1 to 2 percent slope is recommended. Runoff velocities within the channel become too high on steeper slopes. This can cause erosion and does not allow for infiltration or filtering in the swale.

Soils / Topography

Grassed swales can be used on most soils, with some restrictions on the most impermeable soils. In the dry swale (see Design Variations) a fabricated soil bed replaces on-site soils in order to ensure that runoff is filtered as it travels through the soils of the swale.

Ground Water

The depth to ground water depends on the type of swale used. In the dry swale and grassed channel options, designers should separate the bottom of the swale from the ground water by at least 2 ft to prevent a moist swale bottom, or contamination of the ground water. In the wet swale option, treatment is enhanced by a wet pool in the practice, which is maintained by intersecting the ground water.

Design Considerations

Although there are different design variations of the grassed swale (see Design Variations), there are some design considerations common to all three. One overriding similarity is the cross-sectional geometry of all three options. Swales should generally have a trapezoidal or parabolic cross section with relatively flat side slopes (flatter than 3:1). Designing the channel with flat side slopes maximizes the wetted perimeter. The wetted perimeter is the length along the edge of the swale cross section where runoff flowing through the swale is in contact with the vegetated sides and bottom of the swale. Increasing the wetted perimeter slows runoff velocities and provides more contact with vegetation to encourage filtering and infiltration. Another advantage to flat side slopes is that runoff entering the grassed swale from the side receives some pretreatment along the side slope. The flat bottom of all three should be between 2–8 ft wide. The minimum width ensures a minimum filtering surface for water quality treatment, and the maximum width prevents braiding, the formation of small channels within the swale bottom.

Another similarity among all three designs is the type of pretreatment needed. In all three design options, a small forebay should be used at the front of the swale to trap incoming sediments. A pea gravel diaphragm, a small trench filled with river run gravel, should be used as pretreatment for runoff entering the sides of the swale.

Two other features designed to enhance the treatment ability of grassed swales are a flat longitudinal slope (generally between 1 percent and 2 percent) and a dense vegetative cover in the channel. The flat slope helps to reduce the velocity of flow in the channel. The dense vegetation also helps reduce velocities, protect the channel from erosion, and act as a filter to treat storm water runoff. During construction, it is important to stabilize the channel before the turf has been established, either with a temporary grass cover or with the use of natural or synthetic erosion control products.

In addition to treating runoff for water quality, grassed swales need to convey larger storms safely. Typical designs allow the runoff from the 2-year storm (i.e., the storm that occurs, on average, once every two years) to flow through the swale without causing erosion. Swales should also have the capacity to pass larger storms (typically a 10-year storm) safely.

Design Variations

The following discussion identifies three different variations of open channel practices, including the grassed channel, the dry swale, and the wet swale.

Grassed Channel

Of the three grassed swale designs, grassed channels are the most similar to a conventional drainage ditch, with the major differences being flatter side slopes and longitudinal slopes, and a slower design velocity for water quality treatment of small storm events. Of all of the grassed

swale options, grassed channels are the least expensive but also provide the least reliable pollutant removal. The best application of a grassed channel is as pretreatment to other structural storm water practices.

One major difference between the grassed channel and most of the other structural practices is the method used to size the practice. Most storm water management water quality practices are sized by volume. This method sets the volume available in the practice equal to the water quality volume, or the volume of water to be treated in the practice. The grassed channel, on the other hand, is a flow-rate-based design. Based on the peak flow from the water quality storm (this varies from region to region, but a typical value is the 1-inch storm), the channel should be designed so that runoff takes, on average, 10 minutes to flow from the top to the bottom of the channel. A procedure for this design can be found in *Design of Storm Water Filtering Systems* (CWP, 1996).

Dry Swales

Dry swales are similar in design to bioretention areas (see [Bioretention](#) fact sheet). These designs incorporate a fabricated soil bed into their design. The existing soil is replaced with a sand/soil mix that meets minimum permeability requirements. An underdrain system is used under the soil bed. This system is a gravel layer that encases a perforated pipe. Storm water treated in the soil bed flows through the bottom into the underdrain, which conveys this treated storm water to the storm drain system. Dry swales are a relatively new design, but studies of swales with a native soil similar to the man-made soil bed of dry swales suggest high pollutant removal.

Wet Swales

Wet swales intersect the ground water and behave almost like a linear wetland cell (see [Storm Water Wetland](#) fact sheet). This design variation incorporates a shallow permanent pool and wetland vegetation to provide storm water treatment. This design also has potentially high pollutant removal. One disadvantage to the wet swale is that it cannot be used in residential or commercial settings because the shallow standing water in the swale is often viewed as a potential nuisance by homeowners and also breeds mosquitos.

Regional Variations

Cold Climates

In cold or snowy climates, swales may serve a dual purpose by acting as both a snow storage/treatment and a storm water management practice. This dual purpose is particularly relevant when swales are used to treat road runoff. If used for this purpose, swales should incorporate salt-tolerant vegetation, such as creeping bentgrass.

Arid Climates

In arid or semi-arid climates, swales should be designed with drought-tolerant vegetation, such as buffalo grass. As pointed out in the Applicability section, the value of vegetated practices for water quality needs to be weighed against the cost of water needed to maintain them in arid and semi-arid regions.

Limitations

Grassed swales have some limitations, including the following:

- Grassed swales cannot treat a very large drainage area.
- Wet swales may become a nuisance due to mosquito breeding.
- If designed improperly (e.g., if proper slope is not achieved), grassed channels will have very little pollutant removal.
- A thick vegetative cover is needed for these practices to function properly.

Maintenance Considerations

Maintenance of grassed swales mostly involves maintenance of the grass or wetland plant cover. Typical maintenance activities are included in Table 1.

Table 1. Typical maintenance activities for grassed swales (Source: Adapted from CWP, 1996)

Activity	Schedule
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inspect pea gravel diaphragm for clogging and correct the problem. • Inspect grass along side slopes for erosion and formation of rills or gullies and correct. • Remove trash and debris accumulated in the inflow forebay. • Inspect and correct erosion problems in the sand/soil bed of dry swales. • Based on inspection, plant an alternative grass species if the original grass cover has not been successfully established. • Replant wetland species (for wet swale) if not sufficiently established. 	Annual (semi-annual the first year)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rototill or cultivate the surface of the sand/soil bed of dry swales if the swale does not draw down within 48 hours. • Remove sediment build-up within the bottom of the swale once it has accumulated to 25 percent of the original design volume. 	As needed (infrequent)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mow grass to maintain a height of 3–4 inches 	As needed (frequent seasonally)

Effectiveness

Structural storm water management practices can be used to achieve four broad resource protection goals. These include flood control, channel protection, ground water recharge, and pollutant removal. Grassed swales can be used to meet ground water recharge and pollutant removal goals.

Ground Water Recharge

Grassed channels and dry swales can provide some ground water recharge as infiltration is achieved within the practice. Wet swales, however, generally do not contribute to ground water recharge. Infiltration is impeded by the accumulation of debris on the bottom of the swale.

Pollutant Removal

Few studies are available regarding the effectiveness of grassed channels. In fact, only 9 studies have been conducted on all grassed channels designed for water quality (Table 2). The data suggest relatively high removal rates for some pollutants, but negative removals for some bacteria, and fair performance for phosphorous. One study of available performance data (Schueler, 1997) estimates the removal rates for grassed channels as:

Total Suspended Solids: 81%

Total Phosphorous: 29%

Nitrate Nitrogen: 38%

Metals: 14% to 55%

Bacteria: -50%

Table 2. Grassed swale pollutant removal efficiency data

Removal Efficiencies (% Removal)							
Study	TSS	TP	TN	NO ₃	Metals	Bacteria	Type
Goldberg 1993	67.8	4.5	-	31.4	42–62	-100	grassed channel
Seattle Metro and Washington Department of Ecology 1992	60	45	-	-25	2–16	-25	grassed channel
Seattle Metro and Washington Department of Ecology, 1992	83	29	-	-25	46–73	-25	grassed channel
Wang et al., 1981	80	-	-	-	70–80	-	dry swale
Dorman et al., 1989	98	18	-	45	37–81	-	dry swale
Harper, 1988	87	83	84	80	88–90	-	dry swale
Kercher et al., 1983	99	99	99	99	99	-	dry swale
Harper, 1988.	81	17	40	52	37–69	-	wet swale
Koon, 1995	67	39	-	9	-35 to 6	-	wet swale
Ocoquan Watershed Monitoring Lab, 1983	-100	100	100	-	-100	-	drainage channel

Table 2. (continued)

Removal Efficiencies (% Removal)							
Study	TSS	TP	TN	NO ₃	Metals	Bacteria	Type
Yousef et al., 1985	-	8	13	11	14–29	-	drainage channel
Occoquan Watershed Monitoring Lab, 1983	-50	-9.1	18.2	-	-100	-	drainage channel
Yousef et al., 1985	-	19.5	8	2	41–90	-	drainage channel
Occoquan Watershed Monitoring Lab, 1983	31	-23	36.5	-	-100 to 33	-	drainage channel
Welborn and Veenhuis, 1987	0	-25	-25	-25	0	-	drainage channel
Yu et al., 1993	68	60	-	-	74	-	drainage channel
Dorman et al., 1989	65	41	-	11	14-55	-	drainage channel
Pitt and McLean, 1986	0	-	0	-	0	0	drainage channel
Oakland, 1983	33	-25	-	-	20–58	0	drainage channel
Dorman et al., 1989	-85	12	-	-100	14–88	-	drainage channel

While it is difficult to distinguish between different designs based on the small amount of available data, grassed channels generally have poorer removal rates than wet and dry swales, although wet swales appear to export soluble phosphorous (Harper, 1988; Koon, 1995). It is not clear why swales export bacteria. One explanation is that bacteria thrive in the warm swale soils. Another is that studies have not accounted for some sources of bacteria, such as local residents walking dogs within the grassed swale area.

Cost Considerations

Little data are available to estimate the difference in cost between various swale designs. One study (SWRPC, 1991) estimated the construction cost of grassed channels at approximately \$0.25 per ft². This price does not include design costs or contingencies. Brown and Schueler (1997) estimate these costs at approximately 32 percent of construction costs for most storm water management practices. For swales, however, these costs would probably be significantly higher since the construction costs are so low compared with other practices. A more realistic estimate would be a total cost of approximately \$0.50 per ft², which compares favorably with other storm water management practices.

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Grassed Filter Strip

Postconstruction Storm Water Management in New Development and Redevelopment

Description

Grassed filter strips (vegetated filter strips, filter strips, and grassed filters) are vegetated surfaces that are designed to treat sheet flow from adjacent surfaces. Filter strips function by slowing runoff velocities and filtering out sediment and other pollutants, and by providing some infiltration into



Grassed filter strips protect water quality by filtering pollutants before they reach the water (Source: USDA, 1997)

underlying soils. Filter strips were originally used as an agricultural treatment practice, and have more recently evolved into an urban practice. With proper design and maintenance, filter strips can provide relatively high pollutant removal. One challenge associated with filter strips, however, is that it is difficult to maintain sheet flow, so the practice may be "short circuited" by concentrated flows, receiving little or no treatment.

Applicability

Filter strips are applicable in most regions, but are restricted in some situations because they consume a large amount of space relative to other practices. Filter strips are best suited to treating runoff from roads and highways, roof downspouts, very small parking lots, and pervious surfaces. They are also ideal components of the "outer zone" of a stream buffer (see [Buffer Zones](#) fact sheet), or as pretreatment to a structural practice. This recommendation is consistent with recommendations in the agricultural setting that filter strips are most effective when combined with another practice (Magette et al., 1989). In fact, the most recent storm water manual for Maryland does not consider the filter strip as a treatment practice, but does offer storm water volume reductions in exchange for using filter strips to treat some of a site.

Regional Applicability

Filter strips can be applied in most regions of the country. In arid areas, however, the cost of irrigating the grass on the practice will most likely outweigh its water quality benefits.

Ultra-Urban Areas

Ultra-urban areas are densely developed urban areas in which little pervious surface exists. Filter strips are impractical in ultra-urban areas because they consume a large amount of space.

Storm Water Hot Spots

Storm water hot spots are areas where land use or activities generate highly contaminated runoff, with concentrations of pollutants in excess of those typically found in storm water. A typical

example is a gas station. Filter strips should not receive hot spot runoff, because the practice encourages infiltration. In addition, it is questionable whether this practice can reliably remove pollutants, so it should definitely not be used as the sole treatment of hot spot runoff.

Storm Water Retrofit

A storm water retrofit is a storm water management practice (usually structural), put into place after development has occurred, to improve water quality, protect downstream channels, reduce flooding, or meet other specific objectives. Filter strips are generally a poor retrofit option because they consume a relatively large amount of space and cannot treat large drainage areas.

Cold Water (Trout) Streams

Some cold water species, such as trout, are sensitive to changes in temperature. While some treatment practices, such as wet ponds (see [Wet Ponds](#) fact sheet), can warm storm water substantially, filter strips do not warm pond water on the surface for long periods of time and are not expected to increase storm water temperatures. Thus, these practices are good for protection of cold-water streams.

Siting and Design Considerations

Siting Considerations

In addition to the restrictions and modifications to adapting filter strips to different regions and land uses, designers need to ensure that this management practice is feasible at the site in question. The following section provides basic guidelines for siting filter strips.

Drainage Area

Typically, filter strips are used to treat very small drainage areas. The limiting design factor, however, is not the drainage area the practice treats but the length of flow leading to it. As storm water runoff flows over the ground's surface, it changes from sheet flow to concentrated flow. Rather than moving uniformly over the surface, the concentrated flow forms rivulets which are slightly deeper and cover less area than the sheet flow. When flow concentrates, it moves too rapidly to be effectively treated by a grassed filter strip. As a rule, flow concentrates within a maximum of 75 feet for impervious surfaces, and 150 feet for pervious surfaces (CWP, 1996). Using this rule, a filter strip can treat one acre of impervious surface per 580-foot length.

Slope

Filter strips should be designed on slopes between 2 and 6 percent. Greater slopes than this would encourage the formation of concentrated flow. Except in the case of very sandy or gravelly soil, runoff would pond on the surface on slopes flatter than 2 percent, creating potential mosquito breeding habitat.

Soils /Topography

Filter strips should not be used on soils with a high clay content, because they require some infiltration for proper treatment. Very poor soils that cannot sustain a grass cover crop are also a limiting factor.

Ground Water

Filter strips should be separated from the ground water by between 2 and 4 ft to prevent contamination and to ensure that the filter strip does not remain wet between storms.

Design Considerations

Filter strips appear to be a minimal design practice because they are basically no more than a grassed slope. However, some design features are critical to ensure that the filter strip provides some minimum amount of water quality treatment.

- A pea gravel diaphragm should be used at the top of the slope. The pea gravel diaphragm (a small trench running along the top of the filter strip) serves two purposes. First, it acts as a pretreatment device, settling out sediment particles before they reach the practice. Second, it acts as a level spreader, maintaining sheet flow as runoff flows over the filter strip.
- The filter strip should be designed with a pervious berm of sand and gravel at the toe of the slope. This feature provides an area for shallow ponding at the bottom of the filter strip. Runoff ponds behind the berm and gradually flows through outlet pipes in the berm. The volume ponded behind the berm should be equal to the water quality volume. The water quality volume is the amount of runoff that will be treated for pollutant removal in the practice. Typical water quality volumes are the runoff from a 1-inch storm or ½-inch of runoff over the entire drainage area to the practice.
- The filter strip should be at least 25 feet long to provide water quality treatment.
- Designers should choose a grass that can withstand relatively high velocity flows and both wet and dry periods.
- Both the top and toe of the slope should be as flat as possible to encourage sheet flow and prevent erosion.

Regional Variations

In cold climates, filter strips provide a convenient area for snow storage and treatment. If used for this purpose, vegetation in the filter strip should be salt-tolerant, (e.g., creeping bentgrass), and a maintenance schedule should include the removal of sand built up at the bottom of the slope. In arid or semi-arid climates, designers should specify drought-tolerant grasses (e.g., buffalo grass) to minimize irrigation requirements.

Limitations

Filter strips have several limitations related to their performance and space consumption:

- The practice has not been shown to achieve high pollutant removal.
- Filter strips require a large amount of space, typically equal to the impervious area they treat, making them often infeasible in urban environments where land prices are high.
- If improperly designed, filter strips can become a mosquito breeding ground.

- Proper design requires a great deal of finesse, and slight problems in the design, such as improper grading, can render the practice ineffective in terms of pollutant removal.

Maintenance Considerations

Filter strips require similar maintenance to other vegetative practices (see [Grassed Swales](#) fact sheet). These maintenance needs are outlined below. Maintenance is very important for filter strips, particularly in terms of ensuring that flow does not short circuit the practice.

Table 1. Typical maintenance activities for grassed filter strips (Source: CWP, 1996)

Activity	Schedule
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inspect pea gravel diaphragm for clogging and remove built-up sediment. • Inspect vegetation for rills and gullies and correct. Seed or sod bare areas. • Inspect to ensure that grass has established. If not, replace with an alternative species. 	Annual inspection (semi-annual the first year)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mow grass to maintain a 3–4 inch height 	Regular (frequent)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Remove sediment build-up within the bottom when it has accumulated to 25% of the original capacity. 	Regular (infrequent)

Effectiveness

Structural storm water management practices can be used to achieve four broad resource protection goals. These include flood control, channel protection, ground water recharge, and pollutant removal. The first two goals, flood control and channel protection, require that a storm water practice be able to reduce the peak flows of relatively large storm events (at least 1- to 2-year storms for channel protection and at least 10- to 50-year storms for flood control). Filter strips do not have the capacity to detain these events, but can be designed with a bypass system that routes these flows around the practice entirely.

Filter strips can provide a small amount of ground water recharge as runoff flows over the vegetated surface and ponds at the toe of the slope. In addition, it is believed that filter strips can provide modest pollutant removal. Studies from agricultural settings suggest that a 15-foot-wide grass buffer can achieve a 50 percent removal rate of nitrogen, phosphorus, and sediment, and that a 100-foot buffer can reach closer to 70 percent removal of these constituents (Desbonette et al., 1994). It is unclear how these results can be translated to the urban environment, however. The characteristics of the incoming flows are radically different both in terms of pollutant concentration and the peak flows associated with similar storm events. To date, only one study (Yu et al., 1992) has investigated the effectiveness of a grassed filter strip to treat runoff from a large parking lot. The study found that the pollutant removal varied depending on the length of flow in the filter strip. The narrower (75-foot) filter strip had moderate removal for some pollutants and actually appeared to export lead, phosphorus, and nutrients (See Table 2).

Table 2. Pollutant removal of an urban vegetated filter strip (Source: Yu et al., 1993)

	Pollutant Removal (%)	
	75-Ft Filter Strip	150-Ft Filter Strip
Total suspended solids	54	84
Nitrate+nitrite	-27	20
Total phosphorus	-25	40
Extractable lead	-16	50
Extractable zinc	47	55

Cost Considerations

Little data are available on the actual construction costs of filter strips. One rough estimate can be the cost of seed or sod, which is approximately 30¢ per ft² for seed or 70¢ per ft² for sod. This amounts to between \$13,000 and \$30,000 per acre for a filter strip, or the same amount per impervious acre treated. This cost is relatively high compared with other treatment practices. However, the grassed area used as a filter strip may have been seeded or sodded even if it were not used for treatment. In these cases, the only additional costs are the design, which is minimal, and the installation of a berm and gravel diaphragm. Typical maintenance costs are about \$350/acre/year (adapted from SWRPC, 1991). This cost is relatively inexpensive and, again, might overlap with regular landscape maintenance costs.

The true cost of filter strips is the land they consume, which is higher than for any other treatment practice. In some situations this land is available as wasted space beyond back yards or adjacent to roadsides, but this practice is cost-prohibitive when land prices are high and land could be used for other purposes.

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Catch Basins/Catch Basin Inserts

Postconstruction Storm Water Management in New Development and Redevelopment

Description

A catch basin (a.k.a. storm drain inlet, curb inlet) is an inlet to the storm drain system that typically includes a grate or curb inlet and a sump to capture sediment, debris, and associated pollutants. They are also used in combined sewer overflow (CSO) watersheds to capture floatables and settle some solids. Catch basins act as pretreatment for other treatment practices by capturing large sediments. The performance of catch basins at removing sediment and other pollutants depends on the design of the catch basin (e.g., the size of the sump) and maintenance procedures to retain the storage available in the sump to capture sediment.



Catch basin efficiency can be improved using inserts, which can be designed to remove oil and grease, trash, debris, and sediment. Some inserts are designed to drop directly into existing catch basins, while others may require extensive retrofit construction.

Applicability

Catch basins are used in drainage systems throughout the United States. However, many catch basins are not ideally designed for sediment and pollutant capture. Ideal application of catch basins is as pretreatment to another storm water management practice. Retrofitting existing catch basins may help to improve their performance substantially. A simple retrofit option is to ensure that all catch basins have a hooded outlet to prevent floatable materials, such as trash and debris, from entering the storm drain system. Catch basin inserts for both new development and retrofits at existing sites may be preferred when available land is limited, as in urbanized areas.

Limitations

Catch basins have three major limitations, including:

- Even ideally designed catch basins cannot remove pollutants as well as structural storm water management practices, such as wet ponds, sand filters, and storm water wetlands.
- Unless frequently maintained, catch basins can become a source of pollutants through resuspension.
- Catch basins cannot effectively remove soluble pollutants or fine particles.

Siting and Design Considerations

The performance of catch basins is related to the volume in the sump (i.e., the storage in the catch basin below the outlet). Lager et al. (1997) described an "optimal" catch basin sizing criterion, which relates all catch basin dimensions to the diameter of the outlet pipe (D):

- The diameter of the catch basin should be equal to 4D.
- The sump depth should be at least 4D. This depth should be increased if cleaning is infrequent or if the area draining to the catch basin has high sediment loads.
- The top of the outlet pipe should be 1.5 D from the bottom of the inlet to the catch basin.

Catch basins can also be sized to accommodate the volume of sediment that enters the system. Pitt et al. (1997) propose a sizing criterion based on the concentration of sediment in storm water runoff. The catch basin is sized, with a factor of safety, to accommodate the annual sediment load in the catch basin sump. This method is preferable where high sediment loads are anticipated, and where the optimal design described above is suspected to provide little treatment.

The basic design should also incorporate a hooded outlet to prevent floatable materials and trash from entering the storm drain system. Adding a screen to the top of the catch basin would not likely improve the performance of catch basins for pollutant removal, but would help capture trash entering the catch basin (Pitt et al., 1997).

Several varieties of catch basin inserts exist for filtering runoff. There are two basic catch basin insert varieties. One insert option consists of a series of trays, with the top tray serving as an initial sediment trap, and the underlying trays composed of media filters. Another option uses filter fabric to remove pollutants from storm water runoff. Yet another option is a plastic box that fits directly into the catch basin. The box construction is the filtering medium. Hydrocarbons are removed as the storm water passes through the box while trash, rubbish, and sediment remain in the box itself as storm water exits. These devices have a very small volume, compared to the volume of the catch basin sump, and would typically require very frequent sediment removal. Bench test studies found that a variety of options showed little removal of total suspended solids, partially due to scouring from relatively small (6-month) storm events (ICBIC, 1995).

One design adaptation of the standard catch basin is to incorporate infiltration through the catch basin bottom. Two challenges are associated with this design. The first is potential ground water impacts, and the second is potential clogging, preventing infiltration. Infiltrating catch basins should not be used in commercial or industrial areas, because of possible ground water contamination. While it is difficult to prevent clogging at the bottom of the catch basin, it might be possible to incorporate some pretreatment into the design.

Maintenance Considerations

Typical maintenance of catch basins includes trash removal if a screen or other debris capturing device is used, and removal of sediment using a vactor truck. Operators need to be properly trained in catch basin maintenance. Maintenance should include keeping a log of the amount of sediment collected and the date of removal. Some cities have incorporated the use

of GIS systems to track sediment collection and to optimize future catch basin cleaning efforts.

One study (Pitt, 1985) concluded that catch basins can capture sediments up to approximately 60 percent of the sump volume. When sediment fills greater than 60 percent of their volume, catch basins reach steady state. Storm flows can then resuspend sediments trapped in the catch basin, and will bypass treatment. Frequent clean-out can retain the volume in the catch basin sump available for treatment of storm water flows.

At a minimum, catch basins should be cleaned once or twice per year (Aronson et al., 1993). Two studies suggest that increasing the frequency of maintenance can improve the performance of catch basins, particularly in industrial or commercial areas. One study of 60 catch basins in Alameda County, California, found that increasing the maintenance frequency from once per year to twice per year could increase the total sediment removed by catch basins on an annual basis (Mineart and Singh, 1994). Annual sediment removed per inlet was 54 pounds for annual cleaning, 70 pounds for semi-annual and quarterly cleaning, and 160 pounds for monthly cleaning. For catch basins draining industrial uses, monthly cleaning increased total annual sediment collected to six times the amount collected by annual cleaning (180 pounds versus 30 pounds). These results suggest that, at least for industrial uses, more frequent cleaning of catch basins may improve efficiency. However, the cost of increased operation and maintenance costs needs to be weighed against the improved pollutant removal.

In some regions, it may be difficult to find environmentally acceptable disposal methods for collected sediments. The sediments may not always be land-filled, land-applied, or introduced into the sanitary sewer system due to hazardous waste, pretreatment, or ground water regulations. This is particularly true when catch basins drain runoff from hot spot areas.

Effectiveness

What is known about the effectiveness of catch basins is limited to a few studies. Table 1 outlines the results of some of these studies.

Table 1. Pollutant removal of catch basins (percent).

Study	Notes	TSS ^a	CO D ^a	BO D ^a	TN ^a	TP ^a	Metals
Pitt et al., 1997	—	32	—	—	—	—	—
Aronson et al., 1983	Only very small storms were monitored in this study.	60–97	10–56	54–88	—	—	—
Mineart and Singh, 1994	Annual load reduction estimated based on concentrations and mass of catch basin sediment.	—	—	—	—	—	For Copper: 3–4% (Annual cleaning) 15% (Monthly cleaning)

^a TSS=total suspended solids; COD=chemical oxygen demand; BOD=biological oxygen demand; TN=total nitrogen; TP=total phosphorus

Cost Considerations

A typical pre-cast catch basin costs between \$2,000 and \$3,000. The true pollutant removal cost associated with catch basins, however, is the long-term maintenance cost. A vactor truck, the most common method of catch basin cleaning, costs between \$125,000 and \$150,000. This initial cost may be high for smaller Phase II communities. However, it may be possible to share a vactor truck with another community. Typical vactor trucks can store between 10 and 15 cubic yards of material, which is enough storage for three to five catch basins with the "optimal" design and an 18-inch inflow pipe. Assuming semi-annual cleaning, and that the vactor truck could be filled and material disposed of twice in one day, one truck would be sufficient to clean between 750 and 1,000 catch basins. Another maintenance cost is the staff time needed to operate the truck. Depending on the regulations within a community, disposal costs of the sediment captured in catch basins may be significant.

Retrofit catch basin inserts range from as little as \$400 for a "drop-in" type to as much as \$10,000 or more for more elaborate designs.

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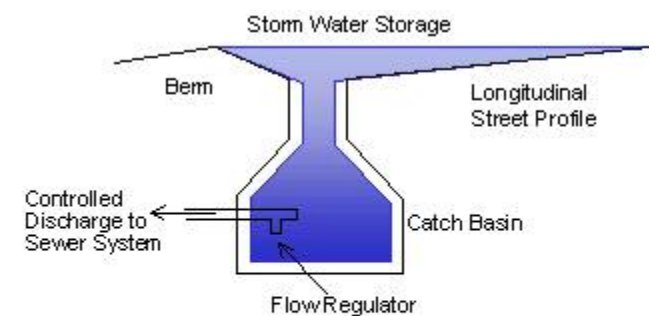
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In-Line Storage

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Description

In-line storage refers to a number of practices designed to use the storage within the storm drain system to detain flows. While these practices can reduce storm peak flows, they are unable to improve water quality or protect downstream channels. Storage is achieved by placing devices in the storm drain system to restrict the rate of flow. Devices can slow the rate of flow by backing up flow, as in the case of a dam or weir, or through the use of vortex valves, devices that reduce flow rates by creating a helical flow path in the structure. A description of various flow regulators is included in Urbonas and Stahre (1990).



Note: Not to scale and great vertical exaggeration

Catch basins can be equipped with flow restrictors to temporarily detain storm water in the conveyance system

Applicability

In-line storage practices serve the same purpose as traditional detention basins (see Dry Extended Detention Pond). These practices can act as a surrogate for aboveground storage when little space is available for aboveground storage facilities.

Limitations

In-line storage has several limitations, including:

- In-line storage practices only control flow, and thus are not able to improve the water quality of storm water runoff.
- If improperly designed, these practices may cause upstream flooding.

Siting and Design Considerations

Flow regulators cannot be applied to all storm drain systems. In older cities, the storm drainpipes may not be oversized, and detaining storm water within them would cause upstream flooding. Another important issue in siting these practices is the slope of the pipes in the system. In areas with very flat slopes, restricting flow within the system is likely to cause upstream flooding because introducing a regulator into the system will cause flows to back up a long distance before the regulator. In steep pipes, on the other hand, a storage flow regulator cannot utilize much of the storage available in the storm drain system.

Maintenance Considerations

Flow regulators require very little maintenance, because they are designed to be "self cleaning," much like the storm drain system. In some cases, flow regulators may be modified based on downstream flows, new connections to the storm drain, or the application of other flow regulators within the system. For some designs, such as check dams, regulations will require only moderate construction in order to modify the structure's design.

Effectiveness

The effectiveness of in-line storage practices is site-specific and depends on the storage available in the storm drain system. In one study, a single application was able to reduce peak flows by approximately 50 percent (VDCR, 1999).

Cost Considerations

Flow regulators are relatively low cost options, particularly since they require little maintenance and consume little surface area.

References

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